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THE **P**OLISH REVIEW

VOL. V

MAY 31, 1945

No. 18



The Fate of the Polish Homeland Leaders Arrested by the Soviets

Broadcast by the Polish Radio in London

"As was reported last week by the British radio, the anxiety felt in London about the fate of the Polish homeland leaders, arrested by Soviet authorities, is the greater since the names of the leading personalities of the Polish resistance movement against the Germans had been given to the Soviet Government on the initiative of the British Government.

"Thus, British circles feel especially responsible for the fate of the imprisoned Polish leaders. This fact is also stressed by the press, among other papers by the Left Wing weekly TRIBUNE, which emphasized the responsibility of the British Labor Movement as supporting the project, already realized, of disclosing the names of the Polish leaders to the Soviet authorities. The attitude of British circles in this matter is well-known and has been reported accurately by the press and radio.

"However, the attitude of the Polish Government is not always presented accurately, and according to real fact. In connection with this, we recall, that on the initiative of the British Government, the Polish Government in London gave British authorities the names of the leaders of the Polish Underground State, who have for years directed the resistance of the homeland against the Germans—in order that the British Government transfer these names to the Soviet Government. All statements appearing in the press and, also, made on radio programs that these names had been disclosed to the Russians against the wishes of the Polish government are contrary to real fact.

"The Polish Government has sent a list of the names to the British and American Governments, after having received authorization to do so from the men in question, in order that the list be transferred to the Soviet authorities. The Polish Government acted in the belief that the Governments of the Western Allies will vouch for the personal safety of these men in their dealings with the Soviet authorities.

"The statement that the Polish Government in London was against a Polish-Russian understanding is also contrary to the truth. The Polish Government has stated repeatedly that all Poles ardently desire sincere neighborly and friendly relations with the Soviet Union . . . The Polish Government believes that all controversial matters between Poland and the Soviet Union could be solved on lasting, just and honorable conditions safeguarding the real interests of both parties." (May 16, 1945)

Article in London *Daily Mail* on May 11, 1945

"Arrests not only of sixteen Polish underground leaders, but also of several hundred other members of the Underground and the Polish Home Army was an open secret when I left Moscow three weeks ago. The full story of how the Soviet police authorities—NKVD—seized the leaders who were expecting to be conducted to London for talks with Polish and British Government officials, has been known for many weeks in the highest American and British diplomatic circles. All talk was carefully avoided until Molotov casually dropped the subject into the conference at San Francisco.

"The first authentic news of these, and many other Soviet arrests, came from the American Red Cross representative, Elliot M. Shirk, Acting Field Director, in the Soviet Union, who after a 6 months' attempt to visit Poland was finally admitted by the Soviet sponsored Lublin Government.

Shirk was waited upon by the delegation of 300 relatives of the political prisoners held by the Soviets in Lublin Castle, used by both the Germans and the Russians as a prison.

"The letter, dated February 27, stated: 'Three hundred persons assembled before the gates of Lublin Castle, in view of the impossibility of delivering food, parcels and linen to the prisoners, beg to ask you for intervention with the Soviet authorities so that the parcels we are bringing may be accepted as soon as possible. All the world over even the most guilty of imprisoned people may receive Red Cross parcels, so why should we be deprived of that right in the camps of free Poland?' This letter was signed by about three hundred people.

"While the arrest of the Polish leaders is a most grave departure from Yalta understanding, American and British circles both in Moscow and here consider it far more serious that the Soviets have begun a far-reaching hunt for all elements of the Polish Home Army, and others, who for five years conducted an unceasing battle against the German invaders.

"It is ironic that many of the men now held in Lublin Castle were put there by the Germans, and now meet the same fate under the Soviet regime. Soviet officials say that these men are being held as saboteurs and wreckers, but this allegation hardly stands up in the case of the men who were imprisoned while the Germans were deep in the Ukraine, and who have never seen the free light of day since that time."

—by **GEORGE MOORAD**

London "Daily Mail" special correspondent to the United Nations Conference at San Francisco, Calif.

THE POLISH REVIEW

Illustrated Magazine Published by The Polish Review, Inc., with the assistance of the Polish Government Information Center. Stanislaw L. Centkiewicz, Editor, 516 Fifth Avenue, New York 18, N. Y.

VOL. V. No. 18

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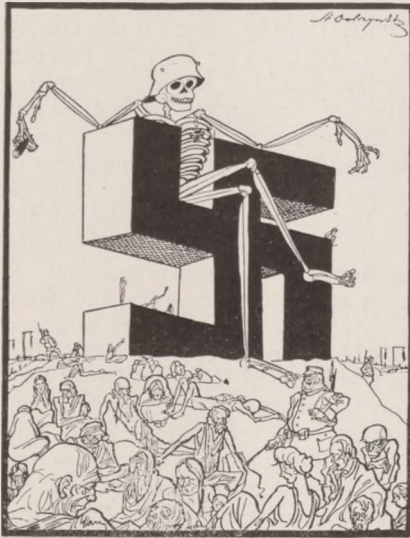
The Poles' Part in the Final European Victory.

Front Cover: One of those who fought in Italy.

WHY HITLER ATTACKED POLAND

The story of Poland's refusal to join the German anti-Russian crusade.

by JOZEF LIPSKI, Last Ambassador of Poland to Berlin



"Lebensraum," cartoon by Stanislaw Dobrzynski.

the deeper reasons that prompted Hitler to change his policy toward Poland, a policy based on the Non-Aggression Pact of January, 1934—and to reach the decision of destroying Poland. Let us examine these "reasons" in the light of the Polish refusal to cooperate with the Reich in the latter's plan of expansion Eastward.

Poland signed a five-year treaty of non-aggression with Soviet Russia in 1932 that was extended until 1945 during the Polish foreign minister's visit to Moscow in 1934. At that time the two nations were troubled neither by boundary disputes nor by any minority problems.

In 1934, Poland signed a 10 year non-aggression treaty with Germany, which contained a most important clause that any existing agreements with a third nation were not to be affected by the pact. This referred to the Polish-French Alliance, the obligations of Poland as a member of the League of Nations, as well as to the Polish-Soviet Non-Aggression Treaty of 1932. The latter pact, in turn, included analogous clauses regarding the obligations of both nations. This provided Poland with a weighty argument in her negotiations with the Germans.

The above system of treaties was adapted to Poland's basic policy, of retaining the balance of power with both powerful neighbors that was, under the then existing circumstances, not only a guarantee of her independence, but also an insurance against war in Eastern Europe.

The German "Drang nach Osten" was one of the basic tenets of National Socialism. From the moment that this regime came into power in Germany, the doctrine of "Lebensraum" in the East dominated the Reich's foreign policy. In order to carry out his plans, Hitler sought allies all over Europe. Party members rather than career diplomats took up the task of seeking allies for their Führer. Young political fanatics, driven by their burning, boundless ambition, all had their eye on international politics. An accredited

WRITING about the causes of the present war, official German publications had, prior to the collapse of Germany, confined themselves to lengthy descriptions of the great tension between Poland and Germany over Danzig and the German minority population in Poland. German documents were full of carefully detailed "information," designed to reveal at every step the guilt of Poland. On the other hand, the German Government scrupulously avoided mentioning

diplomat in Berlin remarked to me at that time that in Germany one had to deal not with one, but with a series of foreign ministers. The most radical party leaders held the reins. Glaring examples were: Ribbentrop, Goering, Goebbels, Rosenberg and, in the first years, even the Minister of Food and Agriculture, Darre. Each in his own sphere or through his own office and contacts worked toward this end, usually over the head of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, attempting to carry out his own conceptions of foreign policy, that were often both primitive and risky. Nevertheless, the basic German foreign policy was uniform, because it was Hitler himself who made the final decisions.

Hitler had delegated Goering to watch over the development of Polish-German relations. Through his mediation Germany attempted a number of times between 1935 and 1938 to make Poland a party to German plans directed against the USSR. It was suggested that Poland conclude a military treaty and an air pact with the Reich and cooperate closely with it in war production. The Germans even alluded to the possibility of dividing Soviet territories into Polish and German spheres of influence. All of these German proposals were fruitless. When in February, 1938, Ribbentrop became Foreign Minister, he began to make suggestions that Poland join the Anti-Comintern Pact. The first of these suggestions was made in March, 1938, after the

occupation of Austria, the second at the peak of the Sudetenland crisis. In both instances Ribbentrop received negative replies from Poland.

German efforts to draw Poland into the orbit of the Third Reich from 1935 to the fall of 1938 took the form of exploratory conversations, vague suggestions and, finally, concrete offers. During these years, there were of course no accompanying demands on Poland for her western territories in return for future compensation to the East. The Germans constantly disclaimed any revisionist desires. Hitler stated through diplomatic channels in November, 1937, and January, 1938, and before the Reichstag in February, 1938, that Germany respected the status of the Free City of Danzig and Polish rights in that territory.

The Munich Conference was the acme of Hitler's political successes. Pacifist



"Good Germans," cartoon by Stanislaw Dobrzynski.

public opinion in Great Britain and France viewed the agreements reached there with heartfelt relief. The Reich had great possibilities. More than ever before the future of the Reich depended upon the moderation of its leaders.

The first icy breath on the rosy post-Munich atmosphere was Hitler's speech in Saarbrücken.

Stupified by its easy victories, the National Socialist Party began to show (Please turn to page 14)



"Sein Kampf" ("His Struggle"), cartoon by Stanislaw Dobrzynski.

STANISLAW WORCELL—WHO LIVED AND DIED FOR DEMOCRACY

by G. I. RALTON



Stanislaw Worcell, self-portrait.

A LITTLE more than a century ago, on June 6, 1844, the Russian tsar, Nicholas I, symbol of European reaction, came to London to pay an official visit to Queen Victoria. Relations between England and Russia were icily correct, but public opinion in London was strongly in favor of Poland, the main victim of Russian oppression. Posters and leaflets were printed protesting against the presence of the Russian ruler. An overflow audience of the National Association passed a resolution

that stated: "... the assembly, confident in the progress of enlightenment and wishing the victory of democracy over tyranny, expresses the hope that Poland will soon again rise as an independent nation."

An official reception announced by the English aristocracy in honor of the tsar, coincided with the annual ball given by the Literary Society of the Friends of Poland. Since most of English Society preferred to go to the Polish ball, the reception had to be postponed. It was an angry and indignant tsar who departed from London on the eve of the ball, sped on his way by a cartoon captioned: "He left England so soon because he does not like Polish balls."

The whole affair was hotly debated in the House of Commons a few days later. In connection with the tsar's visit the government was attacked for having aided the Russian secret police by opening letters between Stanislaw Worcell and Giuseppe Mazzini. Mazzini, the great champion of Italian freedom, is a figure familiar to everyone. But who was Worcell? His name was well known among all who loved freedom, democracy and social progress in the middle of the 19th century. A great democratic fighter like Mazzini, Kossuth, Ledru Rollin, and Herzen, he is less known in this country than they are, but he was really second to none of them and perhaps more unselfish, sincere and single-minded than any other political leader of any time.

The scion of an aristocratic family, he could have lived like many young men of his class. But he gave up everything to serve his country in exile. Leaving family and fortune behind, he lived for 26 years in bitter poverty, furthering the Polish cause and fighting for his political and social ideals.

His father, Count Stanislaw Worcell, whose ancestors had come to Poland un-

der the Saxon dynasty, provided his son with a thorough and well-rounded education. Young Worcell attended the famous Lyceum at Krzemieniec in Volhynia, not far from his paternal home. He acquired an immense amount of knowledge and became familiar with the literature of six countries. A linguist and a mathematician, he was at the same time a man of the world and of society. The patriotic and progressive atmosphere of Krzemieniec strongly influenced the young student. Here he became convinced that for the sake of justice and of the national and cultural interests of Poland it was absolutely necessary to abolish the serfdom of the rural population. A tendency to religiosity—even to mysticism—inherited from his mother is apparent already at this time. Worcell belonged to that romantic generation which—to quote the great Polish poet, Juliusz Slowacki, also a student of Krzemieniec—"built their spiritual foundation on the works of Swedenborg, full of angelic voices, of madness and glamour, challenging heaven like Titans..." But he was a serious and sad young man "because there was no happiness in his country." Worcell married young and was just entering upon "practical life," when political events changed the course of his destiny.

The Polish national societies to which Stanislaw Worcell and his brother Mikolaj belonged, were in close contact with Russian conspiratorial organizations and with men like Ryleyev and Pestel, leaders of the abortive anti-tsarist Decabrist revolt of 1825. Mikolaj Worcell was arrested, deprived of nobility and deported as a simple soldier to the Caucasus.

The second great event which became the turning point in Stanislaw Worcell's life was the Polish November revolution of 1830-1831. He threw himself heart and soul into the movement. His election as one of the deputies of Volhynia to the revolutionary Diet in Warsaw was the first great experience in his political life. He worked hard in different committees of the Parliament; he was one of the first to sign the declaration depriving tsar Nicholas of the Polish throne and did splendid work as a member of the "Ruthenian Commission" which organized the rebellion East of the Bug. For a short time we find him a very active soldier of the National Guard in Warsaw.

In 1831 the Polish insurrection was crushed and Warsaw was taken by the Russian conqueror. Like so many of his friends, Stanislaw Worcell crossed the frontier leaving his home behind forever.

Worcell made his way across Austria to Paris and at once found himself in perpetual exile and completely without means. He immediately adopted a life of monastic self-denial and zealously entered upon his mission which ceased only twenty-five years later, when he drew his last breath in a damp basement room of a wretched lodging-house in London's gloomy Hunter Street.

The Polish emigration in France was divided and torn by strife. All wished to see Poland free, but there was disagreement as to the means of achieving this freedom. The conservative aristocratic party grouped around Prince Adam Czartoryski, known as the uncrowned "King Adam," looked for a solution of the Polish question in the help or intervention of the European governments, while the democratic

groups, headed by the historian Lelewel, which Worcell joined, pinned their hopes on a spontaneous uprising of the oppressed European peoples.

To reorganize the progressive front, to concentrate the refugees' forces and to prepare a new rebellion—such was the plan Worcell traced for himself. It was a plan to which he devoted all his time and energy, a plan from which he never deviated. With this object in mind, he contacted all the revolutionists of France. He—a devoted son of the Catholic Church—became a Freemason and kept in close touch with the followers of Mazzini, and later with Mazzini himself.

Worcell's split with his old friends of the nobility was the result of a tragic struggle within himself. His conversion to democracy and to socialism was a genuine one; but in his heart he felt that national independence was more precious than social revolution; the Polish question was to him primarily a patriotic one. At the same time, he sincerely believed that the Polish problem was a part of the problem of European freedom and democracy, not an isolated national problem.

After several unsuccessful attempts by the great poet Adam Mickiewicz and other Polish exiles, to unite all parties and former deputies of the Warsaw Diet, Worcell broke with his past; he now blamed the aristocracy for the failure of the Polish revolution of 1831 and he turned for support to the new, purely democratic Poland—to the humbler gentry, to townspeople and workmen, to peasants and soldiers. In his opinion, it was only these classes that could start an insurrection. By joining forces with Mazzini, Worcell wished to unite the Polish cause with the general European movement for republicanism and democracy. Although the road he chose was a thankless one, although he was attacked and vilified by his opponents and by different dissident groups within the democratic movement, Worcell stuck to his guns. Circumstances vindicated him completely.

To Worcell, as to most Polish emigrés, the cause of Poland contained a religious element, but while the great poets Mickiewicz and Krasinski looked upon Poland as the martyr of Europe, the "Christ of Nations," Worcell hoped for divine succor through a general social revolution of nations. His socialism was a strange combination of St. Simon's doctrine, Comte's sociology and Bucher's neocatholicism. His social concepts of justice and ethics completely lacked the flavor of Marxian dialectic materialism.

Worcell's life might be called a "social apostolate." Deported from France for his political activities, he went to Belgium and after expulsion from that country, settled down in England in 1834 to remain there with several interruptions, until his death. In London he could not stand the heated discussions among his compatriots and lived for years on the Island of Jersey. When a group of soldiers and peasants formed a group called *Lud* (The People), Worcell became its guiding spirit and editor of its organ *Lud Polski* (The Polish People). Here are a few lines from his pamphlet "Concerning Property," published in 1836 and giving a glimpse of his ideology: "... It is a social duty to work, hence the nation must reward the toilers, and supply them

with the tools they require... The soil must belong to the nation... Individual and anarchic tendencies will gradually disappear, as will family egotism... Family education (at this time still prevalent among the upper classes) will cease... All interests will be submerged into a common brotherhood... And what about those who cannot work? Open the Gospel! The country will feed them..."

The slogan "For your freedom and for ours" was not an empty phrase. Polish revolutionists fought before 1848 in Italy against Charles Albert of Savoy, they fought for freedom in Germany in the uprising in Baden, in the "Holy Legion" in Frankfurt. The two centers of Polish democracy at this time were the *Lud* group in England, of which Worcell was one of the leaders, and the Democratic Society for Belgium and France. In 1846 the Democratic Society gave

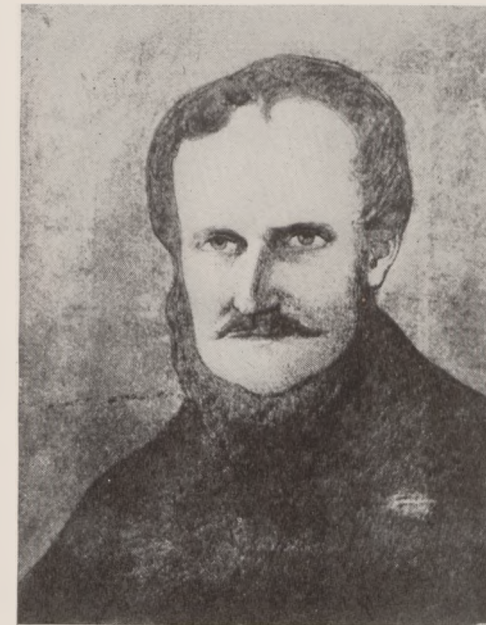
the signal to rise up in arms, and the Cracow revolt—although unsuccessful and ending in the annexation of that city by Austria—reflected the revolutionary spirit of the Polish democracy; Worcell severed his connection with the *Lud* group and entered the Democratic Society. After the fall of Louis Philippe in France in 1848, Worcell came to Paris to remind the Provisional Government of France of its obligations toward Poland. Lamartine met him with cold rhetoric. There had been a moment of hope for Poland, but it was muffed by all Western Europe and Paskevich, the Russian General, announced to Tsar Nicholas that Hungary "lay at his feet"... Realizing he could expect nothing further, Worcell again went to London to continue his struggle. In 1852 he entered the European Committee consisting of democratic leaders of the oppressed nations: the Italian Mazzini, the Hungarian Kossuth, the French Ledru Rollin, the German Arnold Ruge and the Rumanian Bratianu.

Worcell knocked at every door, wrote letters and newspaper articles, and—as he had to eat—took to giving mathematics and French lessons; coughing and breathless from asthma, he would walk from one end of London to the other to earn a few shillings and then give part of his earnings to his comrades. His spirit never flagged, but his body could not keep up the pace.

When the Crimean War broke out in 1854, Worcell felt new hope. "If Poland does nothing now, all is lost for many years... and I had better die," he said as he set off with Kossuth for a tour of England. They held meetings in all the principal towns, were received with loud applause and small sums of money. Although these meetings could not force the British Government and Parliament to intervene in behalf of Poland, and although Worcell was too intelligent not to see their futility, he continued his activities with the feverish energy of a dying man. In addition to speechmaking, he pleaded the cause of Polish freedom and democracy in many articles written for his *Polish Democrat*.

All was in vain. The war ended without any change in the Polish situation. Worcell's last years were embittered by discussions in the Polish Central Committee and by attacks upon him by the younger members. In the autumn of 1856 he was advised to go to Nice to recover from the effects of the damp London winter. But after having made long

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Stanislaw Worcell during his stay in London (1849).



Bank note issued by the Polish Central Committee (1852) signed by Giuseppe Mazzini and Stanislaw Worcell.

"NICHOLAS COPERNICUS: A Tribute of Nations" *

ON May 24, 1543, Nicholas Copernicus lay on his deathbed fondling the first printed copy of his immortal *De Revolutionibus Orbium Coelestium*. On May 24, 1943—exactly four hundred years later—New York's famous Carnegie Hall was the scene of a national meeting in tribute to the Pole who revolutionized modern astronomy. The celebration, sponsored by the Kosciuszko Foundation, and held under the auspices of the Copernican Quadricentennial National Committee, was presided over by the distinguished astronomer, Professor Harlow Shapley of Harvard University, who read a message from the late President Roosevelt. Among those who took part in the commemorative program were Polish Ambassador Jan Ciechanowski, who read the message of President Wladyslaw Racziewicz of Poland; Dr. Henry Noble MacCracken, President of Vassar College and of the Kosciuszko Foundation; Dr. Joel Stebbins, President of the American Astronomical Society; Dr. Oscar Halecki, Director of the Polish Institute of Arts and Sciences in America; Professor Michael J. Ahern of Weston College. Music by Wanda Landowska and Bronislaw Huberman and songs by the Schola Cantorum graced the occasion. A climax of the proceedings was the conferring of Copernican citations upon ten "modern revolutionaries": John Dewey, Walter E. Disney, Albert Einstein, Henry Ford, Ernest Orlando Lawrence, Thomas Hunt Morgan, Igor I. Sikorsky, Wendell Meredith Stanley, Orville Wright, James Y. C. Yen.

It was an impressive program but it was not the only one. Throughout all of 1943 America paid homage to Poland's great son. Messages of tribute poured in by the dozen from high government officials, from national learned societies and institutions, from scholars, scientists and educators. One hundred commemorative programs were held in colleges and universities. Learned societies, associations, institutes and all six planetaria in the United States arranged special programs in connection with the Copernican Quadricentennial. University and public libraries all over the country featured Copernicana exhibits. Hundreds of primary and secondary schools prepared special programs in which the pupils themselves participated.

Numerous commemorative programs were arranged by citizens' committees and organizations. The political world joined private citizens and educational organizations in honoring Copernicus. State and municipal authorities issued proclamations, and tributes found their way into the Congressional Record.

Radio stations broadcast skits and speeches on Copernicus. Nor did the press fail to take note of the Quadricentennial. Scientific journals and newspapers alike devoted space to Nicholas Copernicus.

It would appear to be an impossible task to compile these countless tributes from such a variety of sources and to arrange the superabundance of material into a definitive commemorative volume on the Copernican Quadricentennial.

And yet, that is exactly what the prodigious industry of Stephen P. Mizwa, Executive Director of the Kosciuszko Foundation and Secretary of the Copernican Quadricenten-

nial National Committee, has accomplished.

In a carefully and beautifully edited volume, he has given as comprehensive a picture of the nature and extent of the tribute paid to Copernicus in this country and abroad as was humanly possible to produce.

In his preface, Professor Mizwa writes: "The Copernican Quadricentennial was an occasion for rediscovery and reappraisal of Copernicus and of his contribution. For Copernicus was not only an astronomer or mathematician; he was also a churchman, a physician, an economist, an artist, a statesman and a soldier. And the purpose of this volume has been conceived as an historic record that would reflect the reaction of our contemporary civilization to Copernicus's life and works and their impact on the development of modern science and the emancipation of the human mind from the shackles of authoritarian antiquity."

Nicholas Copernicus: A Tribute of Nations is more than convincing proof that our contemporary civilization "reacted" to Copernicus. Every phase of the proceedings of the Carnegie Hall national meeting, published in extenso, testifies to that. Here is the full text of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's message read at the meeting:

"Commemoration of the quadricentennial of the death of Copernicus naturally turns our thoughts to his native Poland, now in chains and prostrate under the evil power of Axis conquest. Poland's plight today is indeed tragic. Her oppressors are likewise the implacable foes of truth, progress, and the spirit of free inquiry to which Copernicus devoted all of the years of his active and singularly useful life.

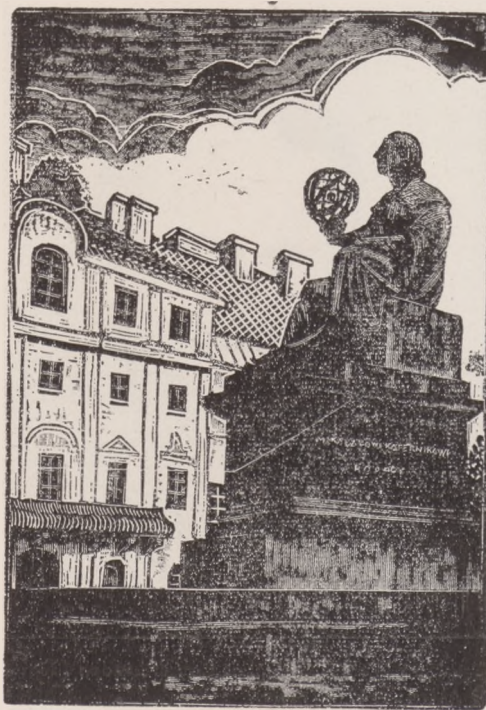
"Although free institutions are suppressed temporarily in the land of Copernicus's birth and in other once happy lands, the dawn of a happier day is assured. It is, therefore, highly appropriate that in the midst of all-out war and the sacrifices which it demands, we pause a moment to draw refreshment of mind and spirit by recalling the great contribution which Copernicus made to the sum of human knowledge and to the progress of mankind.

"Not only must great men and great nations be allowed to attain freedom. Liberty must be made progressively available to small states, to communities, and to the individual himself if humanity is to march forward into light and life. We must always remember that the creation and sweep of great liberalizing ideas may be the work of a single isolated individual, as it was in the case of Copernicus.

"By these reverent ceremonies, therefore, the people of America honor not only a great pioneer of our civilization, they recognize thereby the undying contributions that have come from the small nations of the world. Copernicus serves to remind us that small nations have given for the common advantage of all peoples many of the great enduring concepts which have enriched the life of men. This opportunity of living with the growing and unrestricted knowledge about man and his place in the universe lays on all of us so imperious a responsibility that we should pledge ourselves in the name of all venerated great men of ideas to strive to maintain that opportunity forever."

The message of the President of Poland, Wladyslaw

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The Copernican Monument in Warsaw. Wood engraving by Tadeusz Cieslewski, Jr.

* *Nicholas Copernicus: A Tribute of Nations*. Edited by Stephen P. Mizwa. 268 pp. New York, The Kosciuszko Foundation, 149 East 67 Street, New York 21. Bibliophile edition \$10. General edition \$5.

AMERICAN WOMEN WRITERS ON POLISH SUBJECTS

by HALINA CHYBOWSKA

SCOTTISH-BORN Helen MacInnes and American Dorothy Adams, Tryphosa Bates-Batcheller, Ann Su Cardwell, Marion Moore Coleman, Grace Humphrey and Charlotte Kellogg are distinguished writers. Some of them have spent many years in Poland, while others have become acquainted with it indirectly. All feel sincere affection for the Polish people and have given tangible evidence of their attachment by writing one or more books on Polish subjects.

On May 10, 1945, the Manhattan Section of Club "303" (a club named after the heroic Polish Squadron 303, and composed of women interested in a free Poland) held a reception at the Lotos Club in New York City honoring these goodwill ambassadors of the pen.

In the formal part of the program Sylwin Strakacz, Minister Plenipotentiary and Consul General of Poland, thanked the authors for having spread the truth about Poland. Stating that their services have been rendered in the cause of justice, freedom and democracy, he expressed the hope "that the voice of public opinion will finally prevail and Poland will get justice."

Alice-Leone Moats, well-known newspaper woman and author of *Blind Date with Mars* and of the just published *No Passport for Paris*, was guest speaker. She described her meeting with Poles released from Russian prisons and concentration camps following the Sikorski-Stalin Pact of 1941. She was a correspondent for *Collier's Magazine* in Russia at the time and saw men and women arrive in Kuibyshev in locked cars, an average of 16 corpses to the thousand, from all corners of Siberia, to join the Polish Army. Miss Moats "came to admire the Poles for their courage and bravery and desire to survive." She also met the Pole who was chosen to command all his compatriots—General Wladyslaw Anders. She admired him too, he was "so honest, very decent and terribly efficient."

Referring to recent proposals to make American citizens of 300,000 Polish soldiers, Miss Moats declared they want to go back to Poland. "The Poles have the right to their own kind of government and not one imposed on them."

A feature of the program was a presentation by Chairman Mrs. Henry Kozmian of the penwomen in whose honor the reception was held.

Authors often write a book because they have some sort of message to convey. We were interested to learn why these writers had selected Polish subjects for their talents and privately queried them on this point.

Mme Bates-Batcheller, whose *Soul of a Queen*, an historical novel of 17th century Poland and France, built about the heroic and romantic Louise Marie de Gonzague, Queen of Poland, has been translated into several languages, including Polish, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Chinese, and will be filmed when restrictions are lifted on costume pictures, made this statement: "Everybody who is an independent student of history is interested in the history of Poland. I studied the history of Poland a great deal before I wrote the book. I have always been very fond of France and it seemed an opportune moment to put before the world the picture of France and Poland. I placed before my readers the most splendid period of each."

The story of how *Soul of a Queen* came to be published



Group photographed during the reception for prominent American authors. Seated left to right: Tryphosa Bates-Batcheller, Ann Su Cardwell, Dorothy Adams, Alice-Leone Moats. Standing: Mme. Sylwin Strakacz, Mrs. Henry Kozmian, Minister Sylwin Strakacz, Miss Hester E. Hensell, and Stanislaw L. Centkiewicz, Editor of THE POLISH REVIEW.

is in itself a fascinating bit of literary adventure. Mme Bates-Batcheller, who had made her home in France before this war, singing her way to fame in many countries, had worked on the manuscript for two years. When the German invasion compelled her to leave Paris, she reluctantly left behind the completed manuscript and the rare engravings that were to illustrate it. Three months after her arrival in the United States, to her immense surprise, the manuscript and all the illustrations save two arrived uncensored in her lawyer's New York office. "It was such a miracle that he wanted to keep the wrapping paper, which he did," smiled the author. It seems that two friends of hers risked their lives to get the manuscript out of occupied France into the unoccupied zone and then on to some merchant ship.

Dorothy Adams became interested in Poland when she was still in college. But, she confesses, it was really more from the romantic point of view. "I thought the Poles were a maligned nation who did not have a chance, but I really did not know a thing about it until I went to Poland." Miss Adams chose Poland as her topic for a thesis submitted to the London School of Economics. Then she married a Pole, the young Professor Jan Kostanecki, and went to Poland with the intention of making it her permanent home. The tragic death of her husband and the Polish catastrophe in 1939 changed her plans. She decided she could best help Poland by writing of the people she had come to love. In *We Stood Alone*, she tried "to put in words that Americans would understand, what Poland is." "I wrote it from an American point of view," she adds, "I tried to present an autobiography in the form of a novel."

Miss Adams is now writing another book on Poland. This time it is a novel, the picture of an average Polish family before the war. The period will coincide with that of her own stay in Poland. Her aim is "to write a story that will paint the true life in Poland of circles other than my own."

Helen MacInnes, Scottish-born and Oxford-educated, has
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"REMBRANDT'S TRIBUTE TO POLISH VALOR"*

by A. J. BARNOUW

Queen Wilhelmina Professor of History, Language and Literature of the Netherlands, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.



Courtesy of The Metropolitan Museum of Art.
The Noble Slav, by Rembrandt van Ryn.

"Mother and the Child" by Thomas de Keyser, you ceased to wonder how in the world they did it, for they did it so well as to make you accept their art as a spontaneous expression of their nature. That is, of course, a delusion. Their supreme craftsmanship was a hard-won attainment. Incessant application and untiring industry gave their native talent full mastery over the recalcitrant matter that was the raw material of their art. They were not masters born. In their early teens they were overworked apprentices toiling in the master's workshop from sunrise to sunset. That is where they learnt not to be satisfied with less than their best.

There was one artist, though, among those early masters of whom it is not true that he did not mystify the



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The Polish Rider, by Rembrandt van Ryn.

a century after Rembrandt's death. It was probably the Polish diplomat and composer, Count Oginski, who bought it for King Stanislaw August, when he visited Holland in 1790. If Rembrandt had been commissioned to paint a visitor's portrait, the latter would have taken it with him to Poland. There is something to be said for this argument, but it is not entirely convincing. The picture might have remained in Rembrandt's studio because the young nobleman who gave the order could not pay when the bill was presented to him. Or he may have refused to accept it because he thought it was not a good likeness, or that the horse looked more like an Amsterdam cart horse than like the thoroughbred he used to ride at home.

Any artist can tell you that there is many a slip between the commission and the payment. That the "Polish Rider" was for sale in Holland at the end of the eighteenth century is not irrefutable proof that it is not a portrait executed to order.

However, I share Dr. Held's scepticism, but for another reason also mentioned by him, and which seems to have greater cogency. Equestrian portraits of the same period present the horse rearing in perfect riding school style to show off his owner's horsemanship. This fixes rider and horse to the spot, and in that stationary attitude they create an impression of actually having posed for the artist. The young animal painter Paulus Potter did a portrait in this manner of an Amsterdam fop, and he heightened the statuary character of the pose by hanging the gentleman's armorial bearings up in a tree over an elaborate inscription carved in the trunk. The horse is seen in profile, but the rider, turning sideways, looks straight at the beholder as if anxious to make sure that due attention is being paid to his magnificent person and coat of arms. Horse and rider seem nailed to the ground under that tree, to be looked at and admired by the passerby. But Rembrandt's painting in the Frick Gallery creates the very opposite illusion. It is the



National Gallery of Art, Mellon Collection, Washington, D. C.
A Polish Nobleman, by Rembrandt van Ryn.

"Polish Rider" who is moving and the beholder who stands riveted to the spot while watching him pass in wonderment. His is not a pose, he is a man in action, and the excitement that drives him on is carried over to the horse. It is clearly not a portrait of a celebrity but an imaginary character, a courier of some sort, a bringer of great tidings.

We must never forget that Rembrandt lived in a city that was not only a great commercial center and the granary of Europe but also an exchange where tidings were traded, a market of news from all parts of the world. The letters that merchants received from their agents in foreign parts did not exclusively deal with commercial transactions but more often than not reported also the latest political events. The publishers of News Courants and Mercuries at Amsterdam obtained the items with which they filled their columns from the merchants on the Exchange. Political upheavals in eastern Europe always had their repercussions in the Dutch metropolis. The city's prosperity depended on the undisturbed trade with Baltic and Mediterranean ports. Free access to those inland seas was essential to Amsterdam's welfare. Disturbance of the peace in any part of Europe jeopardized the stability of the entire continent and threw the intricate mechanism of Dutch commerce out of gear. The poet Vondel, who might be described as a seventeenth century writer of rhymed editorials, expressed in verse his

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A SMALL collection of seventeenth-century Dutch paintings was on view last month at the Knoedler Galleries. They were worth the journey to Fifty-seventh Street. The visitor, with the memory of the morning's war news still disturbing his mind, found relief in the contemplation of these pictures, which were all reflections of a happier and more abundant life than ours, a life that was blest with serenity and peace. These old Dutch masters did not try to mystify the public. They spoke a clear unambiguous language. They painted their own world as they saw it, and they never saw it through a glass darkly. There was one mystery, though, that none but they had fathomed: the magic wrought by the fall of the light upon the painted scene. But they had attained such complete understanding of that mystery that their revelation of it is free from all visible effort. None of these pictures looked labored. They seemed to have been painted with the ease that comes from perfect mastery of all problems. Standing before Pieter de Hooch's "Bedroom Scene," or the

* *Monthly Letter*, March, 1945, published by The Netherland-America Foundation, Inc., New York, N. Y.



After a contemporary engraving.
Joannes Maccovius (Jan Makowski), brother-in-law of Rembrandt's wife, Saskia van Uylenborch. This family tie may explain Rembrandt's interest in Poland.

public. Rembrandt was an enigma to his contemporaries, and he is still to us, in many of his moods. If he had possessed the urge for literary expression of a Delacroix or a Van Gogh, he might have left us a clue to the meaning of many a baffling picture. There is the "Polish Rider" in the Frick Collection. What made him paint it? Did some rich gentleman from Poland, during a visit to Amsterdam, sit for his portrait to the great Dutch master? Dr. Julius S. Held, who recently devoted an extensive article to the painting in *The Art Bulletin*, is inclined to doubt that. He has been able to prove that the picture remained in Holland for more than



Copyright The Frick Collection, New York.
Rembrandt van Ryn, self-portrait.

AMERICAN WOMEN WRITERS ON POLISH SUBJECTS

(Continued from page 7)

never visited Poland, yet her war-espionage story, *While Still We Live*, has captured the spirit of life in Poland under German occupation so faithfully that a liaison officer between London and the Polish Underground declared he could not have done better himself. Why did the author of *Above Suspicion* and *Assignment in Brittany* select Poland as the scene of her next book?

"Well," she rejoins, "an American friend of mine asked me in September, 1939 why Britain should be fighting for Poland and I replied that what amazed me was why Poland should be fighting for us. I didn't know anything except the usual judgments about Poland. They were writing just about every other country. I waited and no one did do a book about Poland. So I thought I should, being a Scot. A nation that has fought as long as Poland did is worth every small tribute to its bravery." Miss MacInnes began to read voluminously about Poland. She was judge and jury, she read everything written by foreigners, pro and contra. Asked how she got to understand the Polish character so perfectly, never having been in Poland, she said simply, "If you do study a people's history, literature and record, you are not far wrong in knowing their character."

Ann Su Cardwell, journalist and author of *Poland and Russia*, which presents a factual exposé of Polish-Soviet relations from 1917 to 1944, came to Poland in 1922 after 10 years in Honolulu, to join her husband, Paul Super, when he was made head of the Y.M.C.A. in that country. The Supers remained in Poland until the day Russia entered it in 1939.

There was nothing artificial in Miss Cardwell's interest in Poland. "After I got there, everything interested me so tremendously," she recalls, "I felt that life had just begun for me in a way. In spite of the fact that it was an old country, everything to me was so utterly new. I immediately liked the people and loved the life, and whatever I touched, opened up a new interest. Everything was so vital and stimulating. Life in Poland was extremely rich. It drew out the best you had in you." The Supers were especially proud of their extraordinary collection of Polish history, which unfortunately has not survived the ravages of five and a half years of war.

Miss Cardwell wrote *Poland and Russia* because she knew that "Americans were either uninformed or misinformed." "I knew the truth," she continues, "and I felt it was my duty as an American citizen, a citizenship of which I'm very proud, and my obligation to the hundreds of my dead Polish friends and acquaintances to present the truth to Americans."

Grace Humphrey was nine years old when she first read the word "Poland." Curious about it, she looked it up in her Atlas and as this was before 1914, could not find it anywhere. Then it was that her mother gave the child her first lesson in Polish history, explaining about the great state of Poland, and the partitions. "When I said to her, 'There is not any Poland now,' she surprised me by answering 'Oh yes, Poland lives in the heart of her people.' So all during the years I was very much interested in Poland but I don't think I ever would have gone there without a special urge, which came when I was writing a book called *Flags* and wanted some more information. I went to the Polish consulate and they put me in touch with somebody there who suddenly said, 'Why don't you go to Poland?' and offered me letters of introduction. And much to my surprise, I went in May, 1929."

Miss Humphrey liked Poland so much, she came back three times. She spent a total of four years among the Poles, travelling all over the country and studying Polish history and culture. *Poland the Unexplored* was the fruit of her early travels. There were other books too and then a biography of *Marshal Pilsudski*. At present Miss Humphrey is working on still another book on Poland.

The title for her *Poland the Unexplored* was suggested by a Polish friend after the book was completed and scores of other titles had been rejected as not quite right. Inasmuch as Miss Humphrey has presented much material on Poland for the first time, it is a particularly apt title.

Marion Moore Coleman, wife of Dr. Arthur Prudden Coleman of Columbia University's Department of East European Languages, has long been identified with the cause of Polish culture. Her explanation for her interest in Poland is a simple "I married it." In 1930, while typing copy for her husband's grammar of the Polish language, not a word of which she knew, her photographic memory served her in good stead and by the time she finished the typescript several years later, she had mastered the rudiments of Polish. Translations of Polish classics in collaboration with her husband followed one another in quick succession. Book reviews and articles on Polish literature grew into an impressive total.

A fourth trip to Poland in the spring and summer of 1939 made an especially strong impression upon Mrs. Coleman. "There were things wrong, of course, but there were many things right. It was seeing how beautiful everything was only to have the evolutionary process suddenly broken off that hardened my resolve and intensified my interest in Poland."

This interest found concrete expression in two anthologies of Polish Prose and Verse, *The Polish Land* and *The Wayside Willow*, edited by Mrs. Coleman and compiled from translations made by members of the Polish Club of Columbia University. Coincidentally, *The Wayside Willow* was published on May 10, the day of the reception at the Lotos Club.

Why did Mrs. Coleman turn to anthology? "Because so much has been translated from Polish but never in such a way that anyone reads it or knows anything about it, and I thought if some young people got interested in it, we could do it in a popular way and get people to read the Polish stories and legends."

The Polish Land, a regional anthology, was so well received and so many copies were sold, that the Polish Club was encouraged to offer a second volume, this one reflecting the interests of each particular student. Mrs. Coleman likes to guide her husband's students in this type of work. "It must be the maternal part of me that likes to see the young people develop," she avers.

Charlotte Kellogg, author of *Jadwiga, Poland's Great Queen*, and chairman of the Paderewski Testimonial Fund, sent the following message to Mrs. Kozmian:

"In Poland, after World War I, leaders of the big Polish Women's organizations asked what I thought their most fruitful objectives might be. 'One, certainly,' I replied, 'is to bridge the gulf between your people and other peoples, by mastering the English language and the art of written presentation.'

"Today, were I asked the same question, I would make the same reply. Adding, as I did then, that women outside Poland should be urged to make a parallel effort. Should be urged to go to Poland to get the picture at first hand, and bring it home."

"This, those women whom you honor here, have tried to do. I am proud to be counted one of them. And while regretting intensely that I cannot be present, to wish them growing success in the work we feel it not only a duty, but a high privilege, to share; that of trying to make known to other Americans some of those great qualities which we have had the good fortune to see in operation—something about their ever-living fountain-head."

"In other words—to tell them how we have come to love the Polish people."

"MY MOST THRILLING EXPERIENCE"

WALTER B. DOYLE, an American volunteer in the ambulance service, who served alongside the Polish Armed Forces during the Italian Campaign, was interviewed by Henry Milo, radio news commentator at 10:30 p.m. on May 3, 1945, over Radio Station WINS, New York City. The interview follows:

Henry Milo: American volunteers serving with the American Field Service Ambulance Corps have had some dangerous, thrilling experiences on fighting fronts all over the world. This evening I have here in the studio, Walter B. Doyle, now on the staff of the *Hartford Courant*. Mr. Doyle served with the American Field Service Ambulance Corps in Italy and took part in a number of battles on the Italian Front, including the famous Monte Cassino Battle.

Mr. Doyle, when were you sent overseas?

W. B. Doyle: I went overseas with the American Field Service Ambulance Unit in April, 1943. We joined the Eighth Army in Tripoli in July, 1943, after a trip which took us to South Africa, from there to Egypt, and then to Libya.

Henry Milo: At dinner this evening, Mr. Doyle, you were telling me of some of your experiences with the Polish Second Corps in Italy. Suppose you start telling our radio audience about them.

W. B. Doyle: I first saw the Polish Second Corps in Campobasso in January, 1944. In early May of that year, the Polish Corps was assigned to Cassino. After the Cassino show I did not work with the Corps until last September, when I was with them for a short time on the Adriatic coast push.

Henry Milo: How did the Poles impress you? I mean—in comparison with other Allied troops!

W. B. Doyle: The Polish troops impressed me with their soldierly discipline. I rarely saw a Polish soldier who didn't look as though he were ready to go on parade. This is no small thing, because it is almost impossible to wage war and maintain a decent personal appearance.

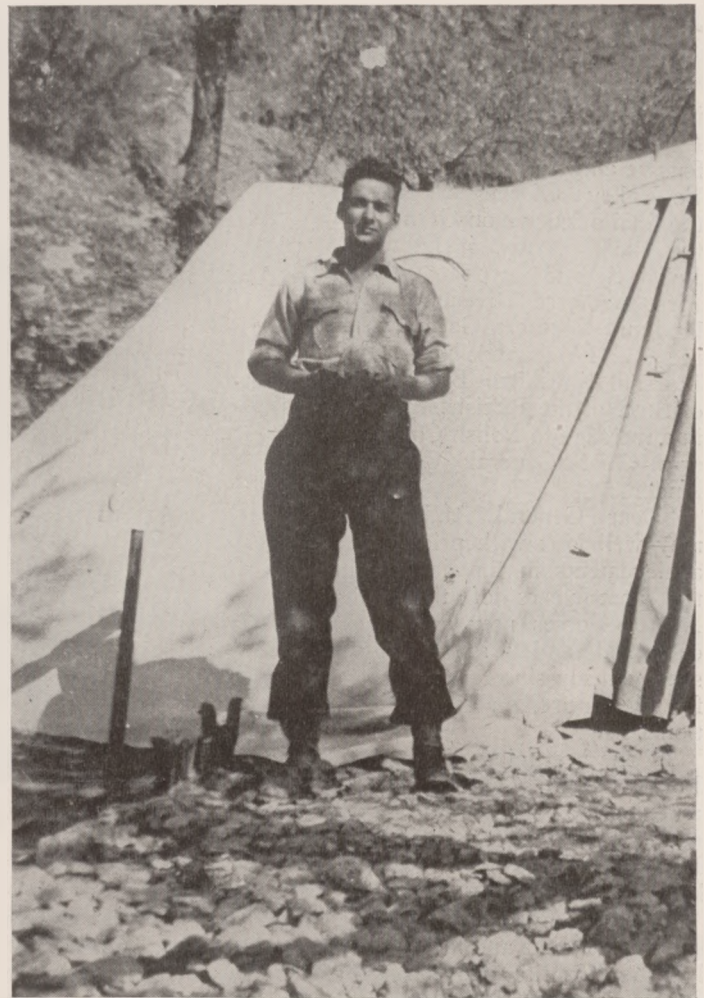
Henry Milo: Mr. Doyle, I've heard many reports about the presence of Polish women in this Polish Division doing the same work as men. Can you tell us about that?

W. B. Doyle: Yes. It's true. Many of these Polish girls had spent many grim months in prison camps; many had been forced to do back-breaking labor in road-gangs. Perhaps their jobs in Italy—driving monster ten-ton trucks, acting as nurses and orderlies, and many other tasks—maybe these jobs were easy for them after their experiences in slave camps. Even so, they did work that would have discouraged many men, and they did it cheerfully and efficiently.

Henry Milo: You mentioned Campobasso. I'd like to tell our radio audience something about this city. Campobasso is situated high in the heart of the Apennine Mountains. In the Winter of 1943 to 1944, it was the headquarters for the Polish Forces fighting on the Gustav Line. What few furloughs the troops were given brought them back to this pretty town. Mr. Doyle, can you tell us something about that winter campaign?

W. B. Doyle: Allied strategy in Italy that winter was to hold the line. The Polish Corps was assigned to the central mountain terrain. Here they were buried in snow that ranged from 10 to 20 feet in depth.

Infantry tactics were impossible. Supply was mostly by mules. It was difficult to keep alive and warm, much less fight a battle. The infantry lay in their slit-trenches in a foot of ice-cold water; many were frozen to death. Others were blinded by the incessant glare of sun on snow. The roads were constantly being snowed under. One of the few Polish road signboards I ever learned to read was the one—"Stop! The road is blocked with snow and is impassible." We saw that one over and over again.



Walter B. Doyle, serving with the American Field Service Ambulance Corps in Italy.

Henry Milo: How was the food situation, Mr. Doyle?

W. B. Doyle: The rations issued to the Eighth Army in that winter campaign were sparse. Hard biscuits and tinned "bully-beef" were the staple items.

Henry Milo: Tell me, Mr. Doyle, how did the Americans communicate with the Poles—I'm thinking of the language difficulties.

W. B. Doyle: Yes, there was a language barrier. It was almost impossible for us to learn more than a few simple expressions in Polish, such as "How do you do," and "Good day." English was as difficult for them; so we generally compromised by speaking in Italian, which made it easier.

Henry Milo: Speaking of Italians, how did the Italians get along with the Poles? I mean Italian civilians and prisoners, of course.

W. B. Doyle: The Italians seem to find the Poles "*molto simpatici*,"—very sympathetic, or congenial. One Italian explained it to me. "The Poles," he said, "are a Catholic nation, as we Italians are. They have been invaded and overrun, as we have."

"But most important is the fact that both our countries have suffered in this war perhaps more than other nations in Europe. We understand each other because we both have suffered the greatest agonies."

Henry Milo: As an understandable contrast to that attitude, I understand that the hatred of the Polish soldiers for the Germans is something that can't be put into words, and with good reason of course. Isn't it true that hardly a man

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THE POLES' PART IN THE FINAL EUROPEAN VICTORY

VICTORY in Italy came as the climax of the final Allied drive that began early in April when the Fifth and Eighth Armies opened their offensive aimed at Bologna and the Po Valley. Of the part taken in the final offensive on Germany by the Polish Army, including the Polish Second Corps in Italy, the First Armored Division in Holland and Northern Germany, and the Air Force and Navy, Field Marshal Sir Allan Brook, Chief of Staff of the British Army said in a message to Polish Commander-in-Chief General Wladyslaw Anders:

"Dear General Anders, you may well look with pride on the achievements in the field during the past years of the Polish Armed Forces now under your command, and I am writing to send you my sincere good wishes for the future, on Poland's National Day."

At the beginning of April, the Polish Second Corps established and held a bridgehead on the northwestern bank of the Senio River, their first step toward the key city of Bologna.

Infantry units of the Polish Corps, supported by British and Polish tanks and flame-throwing tanks called "Crocodiles" led the Eighth Army's big push northward, crossing the Senio to overrun German positions and strongholds built on the river's northern banks.

Less than 40 hours after the first bridgehead was established, the Poles had thrown three Bailey bridges across the Senio, over which poured reinforcements, ammunition and supplies to the northern bank of the river.

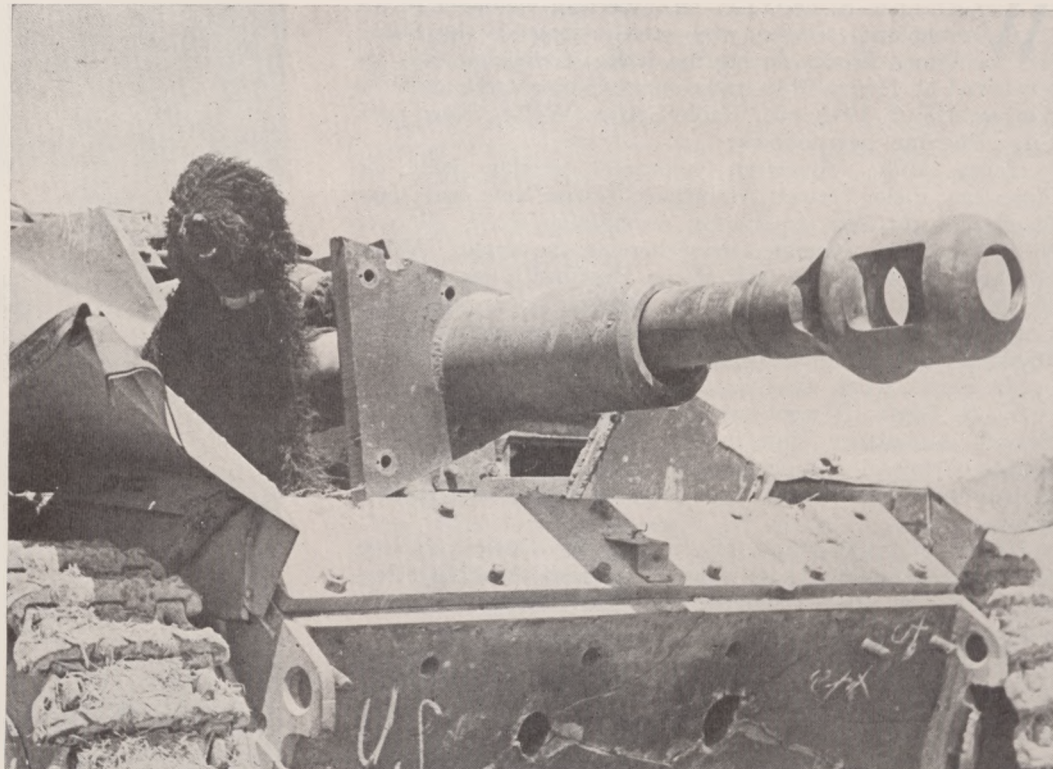
Once across the Senio, the Poles came upon a large Italian town that bore mute evidence of German "culture." The Polish spearheads were already on the Santerno River while the Germans were still defending parts of the town. Some "Tiger" tanks were in action. When the Germans finally withdrew, Polish infantry began mopping-up in the ruins where they caught remnants of German snipers.

Pushing ever northward, in hot pursuit of the swiftly retreating Germans, the Polish Second Corps took in rapid succession Castel Bolognese, Solarolo, Mordano, and then Imola, of 60,000 inhabitants, the largest Italian town after Ancona to be captured by the Poles. Fortunately, Imola did not share the fate of the other towns mentioned, all of which were almost completely destroyed.

The day after its liberation by the Poles, Imola was decked out with large posters and leaflets welcoming its liberators and General Anders, whose name is legend to every Italian citizen. Some of the posters were written in not too good Polish, providing many good laughs for the weary soldiers of the Second Corps.

The populace gave the Poles an enthusiastic welcome and when General Anders arrived in the main square, the Polish flag was hoisted over the Town Hall while he was given many bouquets of flowers.

Once the Polish units had Imola, they advanced toward Bologna, reaching the Sillaro River near Castel San Pietro. Other Polish troops, composed of both infantry and tank



"Pete," mascot of a Polish armored unit in Italy, proudly sits on a German tank captured by his masters.

units crossed the Sillaro to capture the historic seat of the mediaeval emperors, Hohenstaufen, 'Castel Guelfo di Bologna.'

The Sillaro was the last major barrier facing the Poles before Castel San Pietro. Once across, the Second Corps advanced rapidly along Highway Nine, the old Roman "Via Emilia" to enter the town. There again the Italians enthusiastically welcomed their Polish liberators, coming out of the caves and cellars where they had been hiding.

In the town hall the mayor welcomed the Poles with bottles of rare old wine while he told them the story of the unfortunate town under German occupation. In the hospital there were some hundreds of wounded Allied soldiers, among them Poles.

The Poles' reception in Bologna, however, overshadowed all others. "I have never seen anything like it," wrote one Polish war correspondent who entered with advance Polish troops on April 20. "It was more than an ovation. It was a mass frenzy of some thousands of people crowded on the main streets. There were huge crowds through which we had to force our way. Our cars and jeeps were literally showered with flowers. The Polish soldier sitting next to me had his face scratched by the thorns of roses that a beautiful blonde leaning out of a window threw at our car."

On Via Hugo Bassi the historic meeting of the Polish troops with the Americans who had entered the city from the opposite side took place. An American general congratulated the Poles on their outstanding successes.

The Polish flag was flown from the 13th century city hall, the so-called Palazzo Comunale as well as from the city's highest building, the Asinelli Tower, a 320-foot leaning tower built in 1109. All of the city's church bells pealed a welcome to the Poles on Bologna's day of liberation. General Zygmunt Szyszko-Bohusz was ceremoniously welcomed by the mayor who awarded him an honorary medal of the City of Bologna in commemoration of the occasion.

It was in Bologna that the Polish Second Corps celebrated

the anniversary of the May Third Constitution of 1791 this year.

For this "Polish Day," the entire city was decked out, store windows were decorated with Polish flags, while the happy, newly-liberated people waved the red and white flags of Poland from windows in almost every house.

On May 3, the colors of the Kresowa (Border) and the Carpathian Divisions were displayed by the Polish troops as they marched past in the square before their Corps Commander, General Zygmunt Szyszko-Bohusz who took the salute. Afterwards High Mass was celebrated in the Cathedral by Cardinal Nasalli-Rocca, Bishop of Bologna. Officers of the Italian Army, the Mayor and City Councillors attended as did the Senate of Bologna University.

Throughout the last great spring offensive, General Wladyslaw Anders, present Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of Poland and Former Commander of the Second Corps, was never more than a few miles from the front-line headquarters. When interviewed by the press, General Anders, expressed his complete satisfaction with the way the Second Corps was fighting.

"During the first phase of the fighting," General Anders stated, "we defeated elements of the 98th Infantry Division and the 26th Panzer Division. We are now fighting against the First and Fourth Parachute Divisions. These are all picked units of the Wehrmacht that fight to the last man. Our difficulties were further increased by the bad terrain, made worse by carefully planted German minefields.

"Despite all this, we have already during this offensive," General Anders continued, "crossed the fourth river. Our tanks have been greatly hindered all along by the innumerable small canals honeycombing this region where the Germans have for the past few months set up strong defense positions. In order to give you some idea of the sort of fighting going on," he concluded, "I must remind you of the fact that we



A Polish bull-dozer enters the Italian city of Imola, liberated by the Poles.

have taken 1,200 German prisoners in battle. Nevertheless the Poles fight on relentlessly so that our Polish flag will fly over more and more victorious battlefields."

On the road to Bologna, armored units of the Second Corps presented their Commander-in-Chief with the flag of the First German Parachute Division, captured by the Poles in the battle for the Gaiana Canal. This same German division had previously been beaten and forced to retreat by the Poles at Monte Cassino and later at the Gothic Line.

After a solemn mass, General Bronislaw Rakowski reported the course of battle to General Anders, presenting him with the captured German flag and saying:

"This German flag, captured by the 'Children of Lwow' Regiment in the decisive battle for Bologna is presented to you by the armored units as a token of gratitude and loyalty."

At the end of this last, victorious Allied campaign in Italy, Lieutenant-General Richard L. McCreery, Commander of the British Eighth Army of which the Polish Second Corps is a part, paid high tribute to the Poles for their part in the victory. In a message to the Second Corps, General McCreery congratulated Polish soldiers with these words:

"You have played a decisive part in this great victory. In your advance up the historic Via Emilia from Faenza to Bologna you have been opposed throughout by the enemy's best troops. You have inflicted heavy losses on the enemy's three best divisions and you have shown splendid fighting spirit, endurance and skill."

General Sir Harold Alexander, replying to a message of congratulation sent him by General Anders, stated:

"I am deeply touched by your generous congratulations to me in this hour of triumphant victory.

"It is a matter of special gratification to me that you, who have commanded

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Polish Red Cross car on the Italian front.

"NICHOLAS COPERNICUS: A TRIBUTE OF NATIONS"

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Rackiewicz, was in the same spirit. It said in part:

"... If we ponder the life of Mikolaj Kopernik and of his great work, the following thought, almost irresistibly comes to our minds: Great discoverers, great geniuses of science, may be born in various surroundings and under various political and cultural conditions. However, the democratic way of living, wherein the national responsibilities rest upon the nation itself and on all its members,—creates a specific type of man of wisdom and genius, one who does not live aloof from society, but is closely linked with it, sharing its cares, and, with his whole being, is devoted to its most vital needs."

Each of the chapters in Professor Mizwa's book groups the tributes or programs of a particular section of American cultural life, such as colleges, learned societies, planetaria, libraries, schools, etc. In every case the place and date of the ceremonies are given, as are the names of those partici-

pating. A number of Copernicus Day proclamations are included, as well as a complete radio play dramatizing the most important episodes in the life of the Polish astronomer. Typical or important tributes through the printed word are chronicled and much editorial comment is quoted.

There is also a sizable chapter summarizing commemorative Copernican programs in other countries. The list includes Great Britain, Australia, Canada, Ceylon, Chile, China, Colombia, Cuba, Egypt, India, Mexico, New Zealand, Palestine, Peru, Portugal, El Salvador, U.S.S.R., and the Vatican.

The book is profusely illustrated with reproductions of historic documents, famous paintings, murals and engravings of Copernicus, photographs of noted men and women who were associated with the commemorative programs, and miscellaneous Copernicana.

Indexes of 700 names of living persons, 500 educational and scientific institutions and over 100 periodicals and newspapers complete this unusual reference volume.

WHY HITLER ATTACKED POLAND

(Continued from Page 3)

great interest in the East.

On October 24, 1938, I received an invitation to confer with the Minister of Foreign Affairs Ribbentrop at Berchtesgaden. Ribbentrop unexpectedly presented a conception of a wider Polish-German understanding, calling his proposal "epic" and one that would forever erase all possible causes of friction between the two nations.

This proposition, contrary to all previous German declarations, entailed the return of the Free City of Danzig to the Reich, an extra-territorial highway and railway line through the Polish province of Pomorze, that meant, in effect, a revision of Polish territorial status, a 25-year extension of the non-aggression pact, along with a definite German recognition of Polish frontiers. Poland was also to agree with the Reich upon the policy both were to maintain towards the USSR, within the framework of the Anti-Comintern Pact. Ribbentrop also suggested that Poland cooperate with the Germans in their reclamation of colonies, in exchange for which Poland was to gain suitable territories for her own emigration and colonization. Masked behind these promises lay Germany's desires to bring about friction between Poland and the Western Powers.

Ribbentrop's offer was patently an attempt to draw Poland into the "Axis" just as Italy had been drawn. The latter had paid for German friendship and a guarantee of the frontier at the Brenner Pass by agreeing to the Anschluss. Poland was to agree to give up her Baltic sea coast in exchange for a guarantee of her frontiers and future compensation to the East for territories ceded in the West. Italy was to serve Germany's designs against France and Great Britain while Poland was to play the same role against the Soviet Union. Poland was to become a member of the coalition composed of Germany, Italy and Japan aimed not only at Russia but also at Great Britain and the United States.

Thus, between his promise of a wider understanding with Poland and his demands for a revision of the latter's territories, Hitler created a convenient formula for applying pressure to the Polish Government.

This talk of October 24, 1938, constituted a turning point in Polish-German relations.

I was fully aware of that when I reported Ribbentrop's suggestions to Warsaw. Knowing Hitler's mentality and his methods of operation, I could not doubt that a rejection of the German dictator's proposals would sooner or later lead to a Polish-German conflict.

The period from October, 1938, until the spring of 1939 was one of incessant German efforts to force Poland to accept

their terms. Their tactics toward Poland were varied. In direct conversations they tried persuasive methods, while Ribbentrop, in the face of the firm stand taken by the Polish Government, communicated to him by me on November 19, seemingly withdrew his demands. On the other hand, the Germans tried indirectly to impress upon Poland that she was doomed to a close relationship with the Reich. In the Free City, German anti-Polish activity intensified. The question of the German minority in Poland was dug up. On Polish initiative, a Polish-Soviet declaration was published in Moscow on November 26, 1938, reaffirming all previous agreements including the non-aggression pact.

In the first days of 1939 a meeting took place at Berchtesgaden between the Polish Minister of Foreign Affairs and Hitler, at which I was present. Hitler returned to the proposals Ribbentrop had made on October 24, 1938, regarding Danzig and the express highway. In long arguments he tried to prove that the Germans and Poles were united by a common danger threatening them from the East and that the existence of a strong and well-armed Poland was in the interests of Germany. Every Polish division that could fight on the Eastern Front would relieve one German division. The Chancellor further declared that the Germans were only economically interested in the Ukraine and that Poland had political precedence there.

As a result of this conversation, relations between Warsaw and Berlin grew even cooler. Ribbentrop's trip to Poland at the end of January, 1939, despite an outward display of the usual diplomatic courtesies, occurred in an atmosphere of a steadily deepening impasse. The Reichsminister did not achieve the end for which he had set out in the Danzig matter. Furthermore the Warsaw conversations had also convinced him that it would be impossible to force Poland into the anti-Comintern Pact.

Leaving the Polish Foreign Office in Warsaw following the conferences, Ribbentrop was heard to remark: "Since the Poles refuse to act according to our proposals, we shall present them under a more favorable set-up."

After the occupation of Prague in March of 1939, when the German armies took Slovakia into "protective custody," and encircled Poland from the South, and when Hitler at the head of his fleet was making a demonstrative voyage along the Polish coast of the Baltic to take Memel from the Lithuanians, Ribbentrop in a most pressing manner renewed his demands on Poland. Hitler, who was already then in the process of realizing his war aims, had no time to lose.

Poland had to become his ally or be destroyed for standing in the path of the Germans' drive to the East.

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preparations, he began to betray a sort of instinctive dread of change and remained in England. He even refused to move from his shabby basement room. A few days before his death in 1857, he was visited by the Russian revolutionary writer, Herzen; Worcell lay on the sofa pale and waxen, his cheeks terribly sunken. He recognized Herzen after some time and spoke a little about politics. Looking for a letter, he opened a drawer. There lay a daguerreotype of a good-looking young man sporting an officer's moustache.

"A Pole and a patriot, no doubt?," Herzen asked. "That," said Worcell, hurriedly hiding the portrait. "is my son." Both his son and daughter were married and living comfortably in Poland. They did not even know their father. What a human tragedy! Worcell was buried in the cold Highgate cemetery. So poor was this republican aristocrat that if his English friend, Peter Taylor, had not quietly come

forward to defray the expense of a simple funeral, his body would have been consigned to a pauper's grave.

This passage from the introduction to Mazzini's letters of 1857 shows what Worcell meant to his friends: "Early in 1857 Mazzini suffered the grief of losing one whose presence in London afforded him more than sympathy and understanding; it had stood for friendship in a life where the word meant so much. At the grave of the exile Worcell, exiles of other nationalities felt moved to uncontrollable tears."

A man of vast erudition, a man of action, yet an idealist who had used his wealth as he bore his poverty—nobly, Worcell typified the very spirit of Poland.

Stanislaw Worcell was one of the first Polish socialist leaders. In his political profile we see the main features of his great successors: a harmony between the social and economic goals and the concept of national independence.

"MY MOST THRILLING EXPERIENCE"

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in the Polish Corps was without some personal experience of German atrocity?

W. B. Doyle: Well, here's an example of that. One man had been shot and left to die by the Germans—after having seen his family killed, his livestock slaughtered and his farmhouse burned to the ground. He looked forward to being sent out on night patrols. On the morning after one of these patrols he would come into our dressing station, grinning from ear to ear, and hold up so many fingers, to indicate the number of Germans he had personally accounted for. He never said a word—just held up his fingers.

Henry Milo: Would you like to tell us about the Monte Cassino battle, which made the Polish Second Corps so famous?

W. B. Doyle: After having distinguished themselves in the winter campaign, the Polish Corps, in early May, 1944, was shifted to the Cassino area. The move, over the Campobasso-Isernia-Venafro road, was a tremendous undertaking. Thousands of trucks, tanks, armored cars, Bren-gun carriers, and jeeps slowly wound over the mountainous route, churning the grey dust on the roads into huge clouds that blinded and choked the vehicle drivers. Visibility on these roads was about four feet. Then men in the convoys climbed out of their vehicles at night looking like ghost-legions, caked with dust from head to foot.

Henry Milo: How did the men stand up under this rugged traveling?

W. B. Doyle: Do you know those convoys were filled with laughing, singing Polish soldiers. They knew they were being given the toughest assignment of the entire Italian Campaign. Cassino had been stormed by American, British, New Zealand, Indian and French troops, and it still remained a German stronghold. The Poles were impatient to get into battle. They were confident and happy.

Henry Milo: And what happened when the Poles finally got to Cassino?

W. B. Doyle: The Polish divisions moved into positions around Cassino by night. These positions, for infantry, artillery, armored, signal and medical units, had been blasted by German shells for nearly four months. The activity behind our lines in early May had aroused the Germans and they shelled all the old targets with renewed vigor, hoping to stall our attack. As I remember it, the barrage for the final Battle of Cassino started at 10:40 P. M. on May 12, 1944. Our shells landing on the German hillside positions created the impression of hundreds of fireflies flickering all at once. This barrage softened up the Germans. But it was the Polish Infantry who paid with their lives for our capture of the Monastery and the rout that followed. They stormed up

Monastery Hill in hordes. They were shelled, and mortared, and machine-gunned. They wallowed in mine-fields that reduced some battalions to one-half their original strength. The Germans rolled grenades down the slopes upon them.

In less than six hours the Poles suffered nearly 2,000 casualties.

But they drove on. And in the morning the Polish Flag flew over the battered remains of the Abbey of Monte Cassino.

Henry Milo: That's certainly a great story of courage under fire. Tell me, Mr. Doyle, what were your personal experiences with the Polish medical units at that time?

W. B. Doyle: The Polish medical units, which had been set up as close as possible to the infantry lines, were repeatedly hit by German shells. One dressing station, to which five of our ambulances were attached, lost all its personnel—killed or wounded during a single half-hour barrage.

Henry Milo: I imagine the Polish women came in handy at a time like that in nursing the wounded.

W. B. Doyle: The Polish women nurses did a wonderful job—they were never too tired to make sure that every casualty was comfortable and they never failed to smile. It took courage to smile at some of the cases that were brought in. The tank crews were especially serious cases; most of them were burnt beyond recognition, besides being wounded. I remember one tank driver whose eyes had been burned out. As he was being put into my ambulance, he turned his head toward the nurse with whom he had been talking. "You keep smiling," he said. "I will," the nurse said. Tears were rolling down her cheeks.

Henry Milo: Can you tell us what was your most thrilling experience at that time?

W. B. Doyle: It was the sight of the Polish Divisions pulling out of the Cassino area, after they had broken the German resistance there.

Every Polish tank, truck, armored car and jeep was festooned with leafy branches and wreaths of poppies—poppies which had made the plain of Cassino one huge blanket of red, as if symbolizing the blood that had been spilled from soldiers' veins that we might win the battle.

They waved good-bye to us slowly and thoughtfully. Henceforth their farewells would be tempered by the sad recollections of final partings with comrades who had fallen on the slopes of Cassino.

Henry Milo: One more thing, Mr. Doyle. When did you get back?

W. B. Doyle: I returned to the United States in December, 1944, and was mighty glad to see that Statue of Liberty.

Henry Milo: I'll bet you were. Well, thank you very much for your very interesting story.

"REMBRANDT'S TRIBUTE TO POLISH VALOR"

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fellow citizens' reactions to the exciting news of the day. Vondel was obsessed with a nightmarish vision of Europe overrun by Turkish hordes. The Christian nations that waged war on each other should learn from China, the Europe of Asia, what a divided continent had to fear from the rising power of the Crescent. For China, internally disrupted, had fallen an easy prey to invading foes, and the same, he warned, would happen to Europe engaged in internecine war:

While ancient Crete, in days of yore
For countless cities famed,
Is massacred in blood and gore,
The Danube, bare and lamed,
Calls, Help! invokes a Scander Bey,
A latter-day Martel,
To dare the Saracens' array
And drive them into hell.

Dr. Held believes that Rembrandt, while Amsterdam was astir with news about happenings on the Turkish frontier, conceived in the quiet of his studio the "Polish Rider." "No matter whether he did or did not think of an actual historical personality, it seems justifiable to see in the picture an apotheosis of those soldiers of Eastern Europe who were still carrying on the traditions and ideals of Christian knight-hood." That is to say, in Vondel's words, he meant to paint a Scander Bey, a latter-day Martel, a personification of the holy crusade against the powers of unbelief and destruction. We may then see in him a worthy counterpart of that statue of King Jagiello that stood in front of the Polish Pavilion at the World's Fair. It will be transferred in July to a site in Central Park, the Mayor announced the other day. King Jagiello defeated the Teutonic knights, barbaric precursors of the Nazis, in the battle of Grünwald five hundred and thirty-five years ago. The sculptor Stanislaw Ostrowski represented him on horseback reverently raising high his sword as if thanking God for the triumph. Whatever may have been Rembrandt's intention, the picture he created appeals to us,

in this year of victory, as an equally significant tribute to Polish valor. And that a Hollander painted it gives it a special meaning at this time. For Polish valor contributed to the liberation of part of Holland, and the picture, though it was painted three centuries ago, seems a token of Dutch gratitude from an artist who was a visionary and a prophet.

A month ago I had the pleasure of listening to a Polish rider in the flesh. Captain Alexander Janta, of the Polish Black Brigade, was with the First Polish Armored Division that helped to oust the Germans from the southern provinces of the Netherlands. At a dinner which the Dutch Club in Holland House held in his honor he gave a moving account of that historic episode. There was not a trace of vain glory in his recital. He spoke simply and deliberately, never striving for oratorical effect. But the very restraint of his utterance conveyed to his hearers a frightening sense of the tenseness and paralyzing horror of war. He spoke with feeling of the reception the Dutch people had accorded their Polish liberators, and he mentioned with evident pride that the town of Breda had made him an honorary citizen. In his closing words he sadly referred to his own country's plight. "We Poles are homeless people. We have been fighting for our martyred country these past six years, but shall we ever see it again? Shall we ever know again what it means to be home?" Breda, where their speech is not understood, will never be a homelike town for these exiles. But Captain Janta will always find there a grateful welcome among burghers who, in return for the freedom that he and his fellow Poles gave back to them, presented him with the most precious gift they could offer, the freedom of their city. The Netherlands Club of New York also made him an honorary member. But we wish Captain Janta something infinitely better than the shelter of a foreign substitute for home. May he ride one day, like Rembrandt's horseman come alive, out of the gloomy landscape of the war into the stricken plains of his native land and bring to those who endured all the agonies of slavery and German terror the glad tidings of Poland's restoration to her former greatness.

THE POLES' PART IN THE FINAL EUROPEAN VICTORY

(Continued from page 13)

the Polish Second Corps with such distinction, were with me in those early days in Egypt before the battle of El Alemein.

"I have watched with pride the growth of the Polish Corps, which has gone from victory to victory, from strength to strength, and I will be forever grateful for the great part you personally and your splendid soldiers have played in our successful Italian Campaign.

"In thanking you for your message, I salute your brave troops."

The German surrender came 21 days after the Eighth Army and 14 days after the Fifth Army had begun their spring offensive that engulfed every important North Italian city, closed all the major Alpine Passes and netted the Allies more than 160,000 prisoners. The end came 20 months after the Allies first landed in Italy.

While the Second Corps was playing so decisive a part in the Allied victory in Italy, the First Polish Armored Division, under General Stanislaw Maczek, fighting with the Canadian First Army, helped clear the northern provinces of Holland of the enemy and drove deep into Germany to occupy the vital port of Wilhelmshaven.

When at 8 a.m. on May 5 the "cease fire" order came on the Western Front, units of the Polish Armored Division had entered the great German North Sea port and naval base of Wilhelmshaven. The Second Armored Regiment, Eighth Rifle Battalion, Engineers, a Traffic Control Platoon, the port. These forces were under the command of a Polish colonel to whom the Commander of the German garrison, British Marine Infantry and units of British seamen entered Colonel Muslow, surrendered.

General Maczek, together with his Deputy Commander, General Rudnicki, and a colonel in command of the divisional artillery arrived in Wilhelmshaven on May 6, when the Polish flag was formally raised in the captured port.

"Wilhelmshaven today is a city governed by the Poles," cabled a Polish war correspondent. "Signposts led me to the town commandant. In a large German building, Colonel Antoni Grudzinski holds office, the first Pole in history to be commandant of a large German city and port. When I entered Colonel Grudzinski's office, I saw a German captain, acting as liaison officer between the German Army and the Polish Army of Occupation, standing at attention before Grudzinski. The German captain had a 21-year old lieutenant to assist him. Both were anxious to carry out every order. Polish flags fly high over the ruins and over scores of buildings left undamaged. Polish sentries can be seen at all the more important points, guarding barracks with the German Army, marines, etc."

The last night of war on the front for the Polish Armored Division had not been quiet. Throughout the entire night Polish artillery hammered at the enemy artillery, mortar and machine-gun positions opposing them. German artillery ceased firing at 3 a.m. Skirmishes took place between Polish and German patrols.

In the course of its final victorious campaign, the Polish Armored Division took 5,400 German soldiers and 53 officers prisoner. The Division also liberated five concentration and prisoner of war camps along with a camp for Polish women prisoners. The Division provided food for the more than 4,000 persons liberated in its sector.